THE FAMILY MAGAZINE,

OR

WEEKLY ABSTRACT OF GENERAL KNOWLEDGE.

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NATURAL HISTORY.

(*From Good's Book of Nature.*)

ON ZOOLOGICAL SYSTEMS, AND THE DISTINCTIVE CHARACTERS OF ANIMALS.

While every department of nature displays an unbounded scope to the contemplative mind,—a something on which it may perpetually dwell with new and growing improvement; we behold in the great division of the animal kingdom a combination of allurements that draw us, and fix us, and fascinate us with a sort of paramount and magical captivity unknown to either of the other branches of natural history, and which seem to render them chiefly or alone desirable and interesting, in proportion as they relate to animal life. There is, indeed, in the mineral domain, an awe, and a grandeur, and a majesty irresistibly impressive and sublime, and that cannot fail to lift up the heart to an acknowledgment of the mighty Power which piled the massy cliffs upon each other, and rent the mountains asunder, and flung their scattered fragments over the valleys. There is in the realm of vegetables an immeasurable profusion of bounty and of beauty, of every thing that can delight the external eye, and gratify the desire; simple, splendid, variegated, exquisite. But the moment we open the gates of the animal kingdom, a new world pours upon us, and a new train of affections take possession of the bosom; it is here, for the first time, that we behold the nice lineaments of feeling, motion, spontaneity; we associate and sympathize with every thing around us; we insensibly acknowledge an approximation (often indeed very remote, but an approximation nevertheless) to our own nature, and run over with avidity the vast volume that lies before us, of tastes, and customs, and manners, and propensities, and passions, and consummate instincts.

But where shall we commence the perusal of this volume? the different pages of which, though each intrinsically interesting, lie scattered, like the sibyl leaves of antiquity, over every part of the globe, and require to be collected and arranged in order, to give us a just idea of their relative excellence, and to enable us to contemplate them as a whole.

The difficulty has been felt in all ages; and hence multiplied classifications, or schemes for assorting, and grouping into similar divisions, such individuals as indicate a similar structure, or similar habits, or similar powers, have been devised in different periods of the world, and especially in modern times, in which the study of zoology has been pursued with a searching spirit, unknown to the sages of antiquity.—And well has it deserved to be so pursued. "This subject," observes M. Biberg, "is of so much importance, and of such an extent, that if the ablest men were to attempt to treat it thoroughly, an age would pass away before they could explain completely the admirable economy, habits, and structure even of the most imperceptible insect. There is not a single species that does not, of itself, deserve an historian."*

Before we gird ourselves then to a critical indagation into any particular part of the immense theatre which this study presents to us, it may be convenient to contemplate it upon that general survey which it is the object of such shemes or classifications to lay down; to travel over it and mark its more prominent characters by a map, anterior to our entering upon the country itself. And such are the humble pretensions of the present lecture, which will merely attempt to place before you a brief sketch of zoology, in regard to its bare outlines; for such a sketch is the whole that our time will allow; yet if it be found faithful, it will assuredly be found beneficial; for if the outlines be correctly laid down, the picture may be filled up at our leisure.

The first physiologist who, we can say, with any degree of certainty pointed out the expediency of a methodical arrangement of animals, was Aristotle. His works upon this subject have reached us; yet while they prove that he took the same extensive and scientific view of it which he did of all other subjects to which he directed the wonderful powers of his comprehensive mind, they prove also, that the study of natural history in Greece had by no means in his day kept pace with a variety of other studies, and that he did not conceive, aided as he was by all the mighty patronage of Alexander the Great, and the concurrent exertions of every other physiologist, that he was in possession of a sufficiency of facts to attempt the same kind of systematic arrangement here, which he is so celebrated for having effected almost every where else. He modestly contented himself, therefore, with pointing out the important use of such an arrangement as soon as it could be accomplished, and with suggesting a few hints as to the principles upon which it should be constructed. He observes, that the distinctive character of animals might be taken from the nature of their food, from their actions, their manners, or their different structures; that their inhabiting land or water offers a distinction of another sort: and that of land animals, there are some kinds that respire by lungs, as quadrupeds, and others that have no such kind of respiration; that some are winged, and others wingless; that some possess proper blood, while others are exsanguineous; that some produce their young by eggs, and these he named oviparous, while others bring them forth naked, and these he called viviparous; that quadrupeds, again, may perhaps be distinguished by the make of the foot, as being of three kinds, undivided, cloven, and digitated, or severed into toes or claws.*

These indeed were mere hints, and only intended as such; but they were truly valuable and important; for they roused zoologists to that general comparison of animal with animal which could not fail of very essentially advancing the cause of natural history, and which have in different degrees laid the foundation of almost every methodical arrangement which has since been offered to the world.

To run over a list of these arrangements would be equally useless and jejune. The writers who have chiefly signalized themselves in this department, are Gesner, Aldrovandi, Johnston, Ray, Linnæus, Klein, Lacepede, Blumenbach, and Cuvier, and in particular sections of it, Lamarck, Bloch, Fabricius, Latreille, and Brogniart; all of whom have flourished since the middle of the sixteenth century; most of whom have contributed something of importance to a scientific method of

* Amœnitates Academicæ Suecicae, vol. ii. art. 19, Œconomia Naturæ.

* Arist. Hist. Anim. lib. i. cap. 1, cap. 3, cap. 6.

studying and distributing animals; and the most celebrated of whom are Ray, Linnæus, and Cuvier.

The system of Ray is derived, in its first outlines, from that recommendation of Aristotle which suggests an attention to the different structures of different descriptions of animal life, and his observation, that one of these differences consists in their possessing lungs and a sanguineous system, or their being destitute of lungs and exsanguineous.

The Linnæun method is, for the most part, built upon this general arrangement of Mr. Ray, especially in regard to quadrupeds; it is, however, an extension of it, and certainly an improvement. That of M. Cuvier, in its subordinate division, is founded upon both these; but in its primary and leading distinctions, upon the nervous or sensorial, instead of the respiratory and sanguineous systems; all animals, upon M. Cuvier's scheme, being primarily divided into vertebrated and invertebrated; those furnished with a back-bone, or vertebral chain, for the purpose of enclosing the spinal marrow, and those destitute of such a chain: the secondary sections, consisting of vertebrated animals with warm blood, and vertebrated animals with cold blood; invertebrated animals with blood-vessels, and invertebrated animals without blood-vessels.

All these, under his last modification, which is that subjoined to his Lectures on Comparative Anatomy,* are regarded as embracing nine distinct classes; as, I. MAMMALS; and, II. BIRDS, which belong to the warm-blooded vertebral division. III. AMPHIBIALS; and IV. FISHES, which belong to the cold-blooded vertebral division; and the five following which fill up the division of invertebral animals. V. MOLLUSCOUS, soft-bodied marine animals, or mostly marine animals, as oysters, limpets, whelks, cuttle-fish, pipe-worms or ship-worms, defended by a testaceous covering. VI. CRUSTACEOUS; as crabs, various lobsters, shrimps, sea-spiders, and the monoculus tribes. VII. INSECTS; being all those ordinarily so denominated. VIII. WORMS; embracing, along with those commonly so called, leeches, and various sea-worms with bristles on the sides of the body, as aphrodites, terebels or naked ship-worms, serpules, amphitrites, nereids, tooth shells. IX. ZOOPHYTES; the term being used very extensively, so as to include, not only all the zoophytes or plant-like animals of Linnæus and other naturalists, but all their infusory, wheel, or microscopic animals; their medusas or sea-nettles, actinias, or anemonies, and other efflorescent worms, urchins, and star-fishes; and thus largely infringing on the molluscous order of prior arrangements.

Many of these classes have inferior sections and subsections, under which the genera that appertain to them are respectively marshalled. But in a general outline, it is not necessary to follow up the arangement more minutely.

The common classification of zoological writers of the present day is still that of Linnæus; and as such, it is that which I shall regularly follow up in the remainder of the present study, as being best adapted to popular purposes. It is probable, however, that the classification of Cuvier will ultimately take the lead of it; it is somewhat more abstruse, but considerably more definite, and offers a noble specimen of scientific ingenuity, applied to one of the noblest branches of scientific study; and I shall hence advert to this classification as we proceed, for a comparison with that of the justly celebrated Swedish naturalist.

The Linnæun system of zoology divides all animals into six classes, and each class into a definitive number of orders; every order consisting of an indefinite number of kinds or genera, and every kind or genus of an indefinite number of species: the individuals in each species being perhaps innumerable.

The sixth classes are as follows: I. mammals, or suckling animals; II. birds; III. amphibials; IV. fishes; V. insects; VI. worms.

We commence with the FIRST and HIGHEST CLASS—with that rank of animals which is most complicate in form and most competent in power. This class is chiefly distinguished by the possession of lungs, and an organ for suckling; and most of its kinds possess four supporters in the shape of hands, or feet, or both. To this last character the class was formerly indebted for its classic name, which was QUADRUPEDS or FOUR-FOOTED. As some of the kinds under it, however, in its modern arrangement, are possessed of no supporters of any sort, either hands or feet, others have four hands and no feet, and others, again, have two of each, the absurdity of retaining such a name must be obvious to every one; and hence it has been correctly and elegantly exchanged, by Linnæus, for that of MAMMALIA, from the mammary or suckling organ which belongs to every kind of the class, as it stands at present, and to no kind whatever out of it; and which, as we have no fair synonym for it in our own tongue, I shall beg leave now, as I have on various other occasions, to render MAMMALS.

The class is distributed into seven orders; the characters of which are taken from the number, situation, and structure of the teeth. The seven orders are as follows:—primates, bruta, feræ, glires, pecora, belluæ, cete. It is difficult to find English synonyms for these Latin terms, which, in several instances, are used in a kind of arbitrary sense, not strictly pointed out by the terms themselves. The following are the best that occur to me: chieftains, brute-beasts, savage-beasts, burrowing beasts, cattle, warriors, and whales.

The FIRST ORDER, PRIMATES or CHIEFTAINS, is distinguished by the possession of four cutting teeth in each jaw. This mark would also include the race of man; and Linnæus has actually included him in the order before us, as he is included in the class of Cuvier and most of the naturalists. From such arrangements, however, I shall take leave to differ. Man ought to stand by himself, he has characters peculiar to himself, which place him at an infinite distance from all other animals. With this exclusion, the entire class is reduced to three kinds: the simia or monkey, the lemur or maucauco, and the vespertilio or bat: kinds which can only be collectively entitled to the appellation of primates or chiefs, from their very slight resemblance to man in the general distribution of the teeth; for though a few of the monkey tribes have an approximation in their exterior and erect form, in the greater number this character is very inappreciate, while it is nearly lost in the lemur, and altogether so in the bat.

Among the simia kind, the most singular species is certainly the ourang-outang, especially the grave, gentle, and very docile Pongo. I have only time to observe further upon this kind, that those without tails are denominated apes; those with short tails, baboons; and those with long tails, proper monkeys. Among the lemurs, the most curious, perhaps, is the *volans*, or flying maucauco, the galiopithecus *volans*, or flying colugo of Pallas and Shaw; an action which he is able to accomplish from tree to tree by means of a strong leathery membrane that surrounds the body and reaches from the head to the fore-feet, hind-feet, and extremity of the tail; and which gives him an approach to the bat.

Of the vespertilio or bat-kind, which is well known to fly only by night, and by means of an expansive membrane, instead of by wings, one of its most extraordinary faculties is that of a knowledge of the presence, and apparently of the approach, of objects, by some other sense or medium than that of vision; for when deprived of its eyes, this knowledge, and a consequent power of avoiding objects, seems still to continue. The vespertilio *vampyrus*, or ternate bat, an inhabitant of India and Africa, is said to be fond of blood, and occasionally to fasten on such persons as he finds asleep, and to suck their veins till he becomes bloated. He might hence, under proper management, be rendered an able and va-

* Lecons d'Anatomie Comparee de G. Cuvier, 8vo. 4 tom Paris 1805.

luable substitute for the leech. In poetry he has often been introduced, under the name of vampire, as a most hideous and appalling monster.

ON THE SIGNS OF THE SEASONS IN RURAL PURSUITS.

"Our forefathers probably paid more attention to the periodical occurrences of Nature, as guides for direction in their domestic and rural occupations, than we of the present day are accustomed to do. They seem to have referred to the Book of Nature more frequently and regularly than to the almanack. Whether it were, that the one being always open before them, was ready for reference, and not the other, certain it is, that they attended to the *signs of the seasons*, and regarded certain natural occurrences as indicating, and reminding them of, the proper time for commencing a variety of affairs in common life.

The time was (perhaps it is not yet gone by) when no good housewife would think of brewing when the beans were in blossom. The bursting of the alder-buds, it was believed, announced the period at which eels begin to stir out of their winter quarters, and therefore marked the season for the miller or fisherman to put down his traps, to catch them at the wears and floodgates. The angler considered the season at which tench bite most freely to be indicated by the blooming of the wheat; and when the mulberry-tree came into leaf, the gardener judged that he might safely commit his tender exotics to the open air, without the fear of injury from frosts and cold. Then there was a variety of old sayings or proverbs in vogue, such as—

> When the sloe-tree is white as a sheet,
> Sow your barley, whether it be dry or wet.
>
> When elder is white, brew and bake a peck;
> When elder is black, brew and bake a sack.

People talked of "the cuckoo having picked up the dirt," alluding to the clean state of the country at the time of the arrival of the cuckoo; and of "black thorn winds," meaning the bleak north-east winds, so commonly prevalent in the spring, about the time of the blowing of the blackthorn. Virgil, in the recipe he gives in his *Georgics* for the production of a stock of bees, states that the process should be begun

> Before the meadows blush with recent flowers,
> And prattling swallows hang their nests on high.

And Shakspeare, in his *Winter's Tale*, speaks of

> ——————Daffodils
> That come before the swallow dares, and take
> The winds of March with beauty.

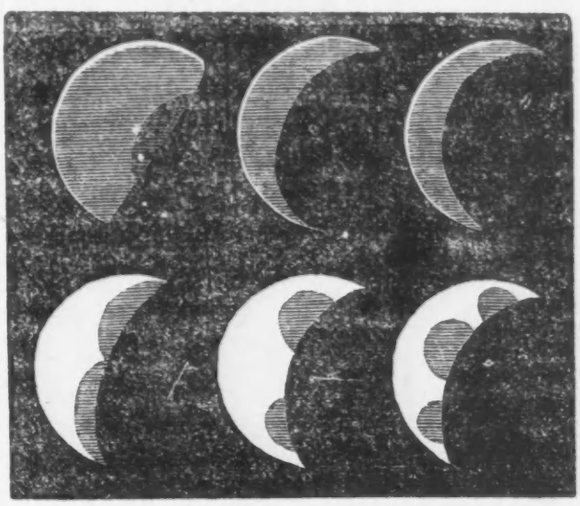
The intelligent observer of nature from whose writings we have been permitted to make some extracts, has been greatly struck with coincidences of this kind; and he mentions with interest an idea suggested in the same work, of forming "a calendar, by which the flowering of a plant should acquaint us with the appearance of a bird, and the appearance of an insect tell us the flowering of a plant."

Following up this idea, he annexes a plan of such a calendar, in which each month, except "dark December," contains notices of these occurrences in nature. The grounds for his remarks are extremely curious, and worthy of our observation. In associating the wasp with the hawthorn-leaf in April, the author says, "Wasps seem to delight in frequentieg hawthorn-hedges in the spring, as soon as the early foliage comes out. What is it that attracts them to these haunts? Perhaps they come in search of the larvæ of other insects which feed on the hawthorn. That wasps, whose ordinary food seems to be fruit, occasionally devour insects, there can be no doubt, as, even in summer, they may often be seen to attack and devour the flies in the windows.—When they make their first appearance in spring, there is no fruit for them; therefore they may at that season resort to hawthorn-hedges, which abound with the larvæ of various insects. The song of the cuckoo is found to occur at the time of the appearance of the *Papilio cardamines*, or orange-tipped butterfly. It is a common remark, that the cuckoo is seldom heard in July, and this *papilio* is rarely met with so late. In the end of November, the little winter-moth (*Phalæna brumaria.*) is classed with the late-flowering *asters*."—*Saturday Magazine.*

ASTRONOMY.

We have already presented a telescopic view of almost all the planets. Before proceeding further, it would be proper to introduce several additional views.

Seen through a Telescope, the celestial bodies appear very differently from their appearance to the naked eye. Venus, for example, does not appear round. The reason of this is, that we do not see the whole of the half on which the sun shines. Both Venus and Mercury have appearances similar to those of the Moon; different at different times. The cut below is a more full view of Venus than the one we have already given, and will serve to illustrate what we here state.



TELESCOPIC APPEARANCE OF VENUS.

Before proceeding to the superior planets, that is, those which are further from the sun than is the earth, we will attend to that important appendage of the earth,

THE MOON.

Next to the Sun, the moon is to us the most interesting of all the celestial orbs. She is the constant attendant of the earth, and revolves around it in twenty-seven days eight hours, but the period from one new moon to another is about twenty-nine days twelve hours. She is the nearest of all the heavenly bodies, being only about 240,000 miles distant from the earth. She is much smaller than the earth, being only 2180 miles in diameter, while that of the earth is about 7930. Her surface, when viewed with a telescope, presents an interesting and variegated aspect, being diversified with mountains, valleys, rocks, and plains, in every variety of form and position. Some of these mountains form long and elevated ridges, while others, of a conical form, rise to a great height from the middle of level plains; but the most singular feature of the Moon, is those circular ridges and cavities which diversify every portion of her surface. A range of mountains, of a circular form, rising three or four miles above the level of the adjacent districts, surrounds, like a mighty rampart, an extensive plain; and, in the middle of this plain or cavity, an insulated conical hill rises to a considerable elevation. Several hundreds of these circular plains, most of which are considerably below the level of the surrounding country, may be perceived with a good telescope, on

every region of the lunar surface. They are of all dimensions, from two or three miles to 40 miles in diameter; and if they be adorned with verdure, they must present to the view of a spectator, placed among them, a more variegated, romantic, and sublime scenery than is to be found on the surface of our globe. An idea of some of these scenes may be acquired by conceiving a plain of about a hundred miles in circumference encircled with a range of mountains of various forms, three miles in perpendicular height, and having a mountain near the centre, whose top reaches a mile and a half above the level of the plain. From the top of this central mountain, the whole plain, with all its variety of objects, would be distinctly visible, and the view would appear to be bounded on all sides by a lofty amphitheatre of mountains, in every diversity of shape, rearing their summits to the sky. From the summit of the circular ridge, the conical hill in the centre, the opposite circular range, the plain below, and some of the adjacent plains which encompass the exterior ridge of the mountains, would form another variety of view; and a third variety would be obtained from the various aspects of the central mountain and the surrounding scenery, as viewed from the plains below.

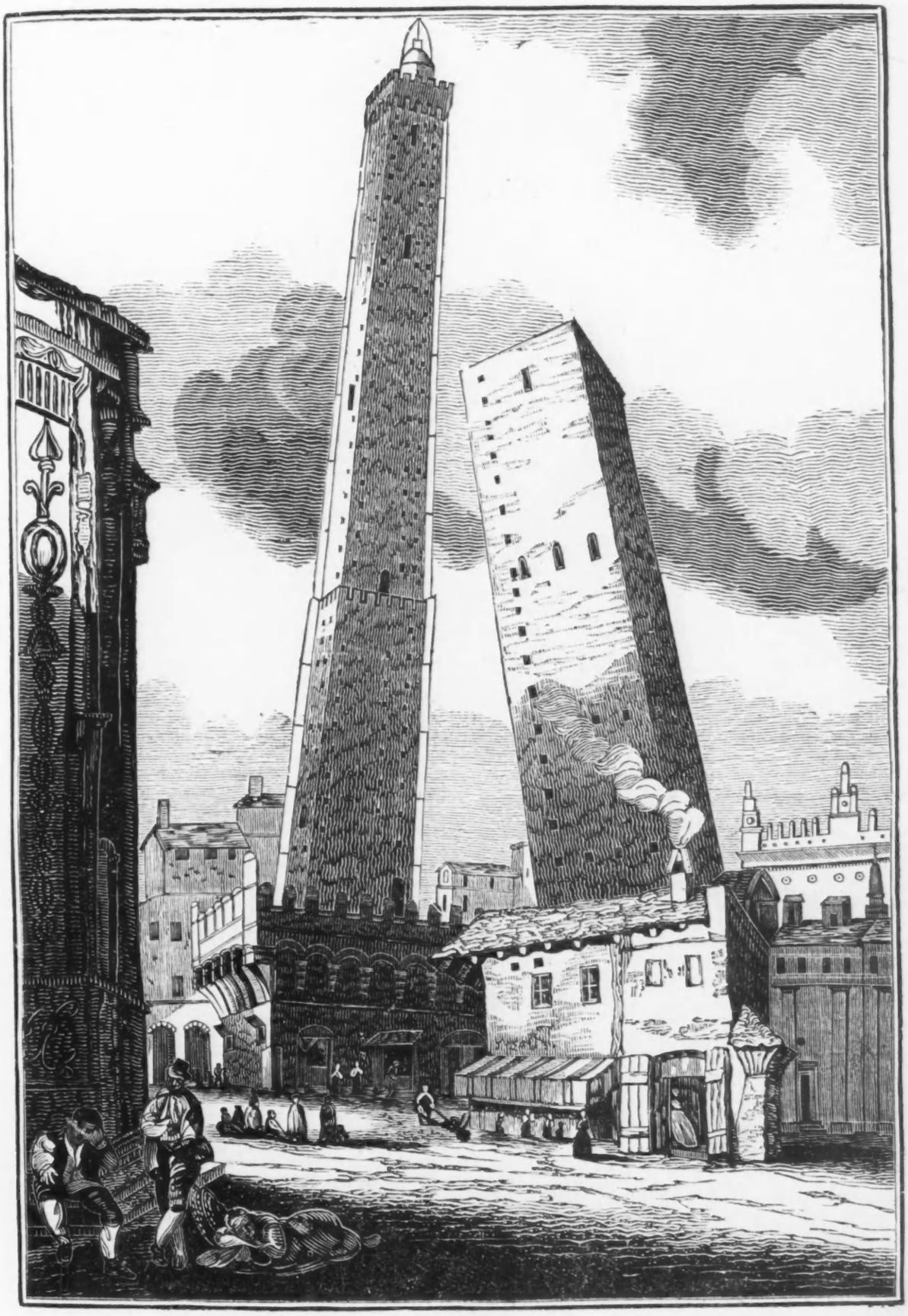
TELESCOPIC APPEARANCE OF THE MOON.

The lunar mountains are of all sizes, from a furlong to five miles in perpendicular elevation. Certain luminous spots, which have been occasionally seen on the dark side of the Moon, seem to demonstrate that fire exists in this planet; Dr. Herschel and several other astronomers suppose they are volcanoes in a state of eruption. The bright spots on the Moon are the mountainous regions; the dark spots are the plains, or more level parts of her surface. There may probably be rivers, or small lakes, on this planet; but there are no seas or large collections of water. It appears highly probable, from the observations of Schroeter, that the Moon is encompassed with an atmosphere, but no clouds, rain, or snow, seem to exist in it. The illuminating power of the light derived from the Moon, according to the experiments made by Leslie, is about 100,000th part of the illuminating power of the Sun.

The moon always presents the same face to us; which proves that she revolves round her axis in the same time that she revolves round the earth As this ORB derives its light from the sun, and reflects a portion of it upon the earth, so the earth performs the same office to the moon. A spectator on the lunar surface would behold the earth like a luminous orb, suspended in the vault of heaven, presenting a surface about thirteen times larger than the moon does to us, and appearing sometimes gibbous, sometimes horned, and at other times with a round full face. The light which the earth reflects upon the dark side of the moon, may be distinctly perceived by a common telescope, from three to six or eight days after the change. The lunar surface contains about sixteen millions of square miles, and is therefore capable of containing a population equal to that of our globe, allowing only about fifty-three inhabitants to every square mile. That this planet is inhabited by sensitive and intelligent beings, there is every reason to conclude, from a consideration of the sublime scenery with which its surface is adorned, and of the general beneficence of the Creator, who appears to have left no portion of his material creation without animated existences; and it is highly probable that direct proofs of the moon's being inhabited may hereafter be obtained, when all the varieties on her surface shall have been more minutely explored.—DICK'S *Christian Philosopher*.

The moon was worshipped by the ancient heathen under various titles. It was fancied to be a goddess, and was denominated Luna and Diana by the Greeks and Romans. It was called Isis by the Egyptians. It was said by the former to be the twin sister of the sun, which they denominated Apollo. There were two most famous temples dedicated to it. That at Ephesus was one of the seven wonders of the world. The other was that of Taurica Chersonesus, or the modern Crimea, in ancient Scythia; at which place, human sacrifices were offered to it. Besides the foregoing titles, it had various others, according to the different offices which it was supposed to fill, such as Lucina, Ilythia, Juno Pronuba, Trivia, Agrotera, Orthia, Taurica, Delia, Cynthia, &c. It had several oracles, of which those of Egypt, Cilicia, and Ephesus are best known. It was fabled of this divinity, that when Typhon waged war against the gods, she transformed herself into a cat, by which means she eluded him, and escaped his fury.

LEANING TOWERS.



THE LEANING TOWERS OF BOLOGNA.

These curious specimens of architecture afford, perhaps, the most striking and remarkable examples in existence of that important principle of the laws of gravitation, "*that a body will be supported, or will stand, provided that its line of direction fall within its base;*" that is to say, in common phrase, provided it keeps its

balance. It is almost superfluous to observe, that the converse of this principle is equally true, "*that a body will fall if its line of direction fall without its base*;" in other words, if it lose its balance. In order to understand the meaning and the reason of this, it will be necessary to remember, that the attraction of gravitation, or tendency to fall towards the centre of the earth, acts *equally on all parts* of the same body around which, in every direction, it acts equally. On this point the body may be said to be balanced; this is the centre of gravity, *a* fig. 1; and a line drawn from it towards the centre of the earth, passing through the base, or lowest side of the body, is the line of direction *a* F. fig. 1; if, therefore, this line fall within the base, the centre of gravity is supported by the base, and the body is balanced, for the attraction of the dark part, B D E, which is supported by the base, has more tendency to keep the body standing than that of the light part B C E, which is unsupported by the base, has to incline, or pull it down; but if, as as in fig. 2, the line of direction fall without the base, where *a* is the centre of gravity, and *a* F the line of direction, it is clear that there being more parts of the body

Fig. 1.

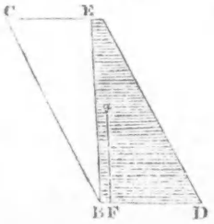
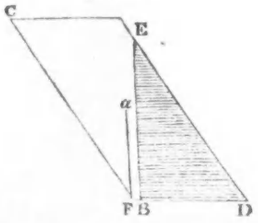


Fig. 2.



unsupported by the base than those which are supported, or B C E being larger than B D E, the attraction of the greater part will overcome that of the lesser, and that the body will not be balanced, but have a greater tendency to fall than to stand. Perhaps the following explanation may make this important rule more intelligible. The power of all the forces of the attraction of gravitation acting on *different parts* of a body, is exactly equal to that of *one* force acting on the centre of gravity *only*. If, therefore, this point be supported, the whole body will be supported, and this can only be the case when the line of direction falls within the base.

It has been found by experiment, that most lofty buildings of any antiquity are slightly inclined from the perpendicular; the Monument near London Bridge is one of many instances; but the Towers at Bologna and Pisa in Italy, and at Caerphilly, Bridgenorth, and Corfe Castle, in our own country,* are the most remarkable. We are indebted to that elegant periodical work, the *Landscape Annual*, for a beautiful view of these at Bologna. They were probably erected by private families, for the purposes of defence in the desperate feuds and civil wars which so long desolated Italy, and rendered buildings such as these of the utmost importance to their possessors. The small republics of Lombardy were continually at war with each other, or with the Emperors of Germany; every city was divided into the two furious factions of Guelfs and Ghibellines, (or the parties of the Pope and the Emperor;) and every street (frequently every family) was "divided against itself" by the quarrels of the nobles,—the Montagues and Capulets of their day;—and every man's house was indeed his castle, but in a very different sense from that which these words now convey to English ears. The taller of the two, that of the Asinelli, was built A. D. 1109; its height has been variously stated at 350, 377, and 307 feet, and its inclination at a few inches, and at 3 feet and a half. It has no external beauty, but rewards the traveller for a tedious ascent of 500 steps, by an extensive view, which includes the neighbouring cities of Imola, Ferrara, and Modena. The tower of the Garisendi or Garissuidi, is immortalized by Dante's simile, who compares it to the stooping Giant Antæus; its height is 140 or 150 feet, and it deviates 7 or 8 feet from the perpendicular. The woodwork and masonry incline from the horizon, which fact strongly corroborates the opinion of Montfaucon, the Antiquary, of the correctness of which there can hardly be a doubt; he says its inclination was "caused by the slipping of the earth; some went to ruin when it slipped, as the ground on the inclined side was not so firm as may be said of the other towers that lean; that for the bells of St. Mary Zibenica, at Venice, leans; and at Ravenna, and between Ferrara and Venice, and in other places, numerous instances may be found." Of the leaning towers of Italy, this tower is second only to that of Pisa (of which we shall speak in a future number) in the greatness of its deviation from the perpendicular, but is inferior in this point to that of Caerphilly Castle, which will also be described in a future number, whilst in height the tower of Asinelli soars far above its competitors in Italy and England.—*Saturday Magazine.*

* England.

THE BOTTLE CONJURER.

The following hoax was played off upon the inhabitants of London in 1749, by the facetious Duke of Montague.

This nobleman being in company with some friends, the conversation turned on public curiosity, when the Duke said it went so far, that if a person advertised that he would creep into a quart bottle, he would get an audience. Some of the company could not believe this possible, a wager was the result, and the Duke, in order to decide it, caused the following advertisement to be put in all the papers.

"AT the *New Theatre* in the *Hay Market*, on *Monday* next, the 16th inst. to be seen a person who performs the several most surprising things following, viz. first, he takes a common walking-cane from any of the spectators, and thereon plays the music of every instrument now in use, and likewise sings to surprising perfection. Secondly, he presents you with a common wine-bottle, which any of the spectators may first examine; this bottle is placed on a table in the middle of the stage, and he (without any equivocation) goes into it in sight of all the spectators, and sings in it; during his stay in the bottle, any person may handle it, and see plainly that it does not exceed a common tavern bottle.

Those on the stage or in the boxes may come in masked habits (if agreeable to them) and the performer (if desired) will inform them who they are.

Stage, 7*s.* 6*d.* Boxes, 5*s.* Pit, 3*s.* Gallery, 2*s.* To begin at half an hour after six o'clock.

Tickets to be had at the theatre.

*** The performance continues about two hours and and a half.

N.B. If any gentleman or lady, after the above performances (either singly or in company, in or out of mask) desirous of seeing a representation of any deceased person, such as husband or wife, sister or brother, or any intimate friend of either sex (upon making a gratuity to the performer) shall be gratified by seeing and conversing with them for some minutes as if alive: likewise (if desired) he will tell you the most secret thought in your past life, and give you a full view of persons who have injured you, whether dead or alive. For those gentlemen and ladies who are desirous of seeing this last part, there is a private room provided.

These performances have been seen by most of the crowned heads of *Asia*, *Africa*, and *Europe*, and never appeared public any where but once; but will wait on any at their houses and perform as above for five pounds each time.

*** There will be a proper guard to keep the house in due decorum."

The following advertisement was also published at the same time, which one would have thought sufficient to prevent the former from having any effect.

"*Lately arrived from Italy,*

Signor Capitello Jumpedo,, a surprising dwarf, no taller than a common tavern tobacco pipe, who can perform many wonderful equilibres on the slack or tight rope: likewise he'll transform his body into above ten thousand different shapes and postures; and after he has diverted the spectators two hours and a half, he will open his mouth wide, and jump down his own throat. He being the most wonderful wonder of wonders that ever the world wondered at, would be willing to join in performance with that surprising musician on *Monday* next, in the *Hay Market*.

He is to be spoken with at the *Black Raven* in *Goldenlane* every day from seven till twelve, and from twelve all day long."

The bait however took even better than could have been expected. The playhouse was crowded with dukes, duchesses, lords, ladies, and all ranks and degrees, to witness the bottle-conjurer. Of the result, we quote the following account from the journals of the time.

"Last night (viz. Monday the 16th) the much expected drama of the bottle-conjurer of the *New Theatre* in the *Hay Market*, ended in the tragic comical manner following. Curiosity had drawn together prodigious numbers. About seven, the theatre being lighted up, but without so much as a single fiddle to keep the audience in good humour, many grew impatient. Immediately followed a chorus of catcalls, heightened by loud vociferations, and beating of sticks; when a fellow came from behind the curtain, and bowing, said, that if the performer did not appear, the money should be returned. At the same time a wag crying out from the pit, that if the ladies and gentlemen would give double prices, the conjurer would get into a pint bottle, presently a young gentleman in one of the boxes seized a lighted candle, and threw it on the stage. This served as the charge for sounding to battle Upon this, the greater part of the audience made the best of their way out of the theatre; some losing a cloak, others a hat, others a wig, and others hat, wig, and swords also. One party however staid in the house, in order to demolish the inside, when the mob breaking in, they tore up the benches, broke to pieces the scenes, pulled down the boxes, in short dismantled the theatre entirely, carrying away the particulars abovementioned into the street, where they made a mighty bonfire; the curtain being hoisted on a pole, by way of a flag. A large party of guards were sent for, but came time enough only to warm themselves round the fire. We hear of no other disaster than a young nobleman's chin being hurt, occasioned by his fall into the pit, with part of one of the boxes, which he had forced out with his foot. 'Tis thought the conjurer vanished away with the bank. Many enemies to a late celebrated book concerning the ceasing of miracles, are greatly disappointed by the conjurer's non-appearance in the bottle, they imagining that his jumping into it would have been the most convincing proof possible, that miracles are not yet ceased."

Several advertisements were printed afterwards, some serious, others comical, relating to this whimsical affair; among the rest was the following, which, we hope, may be the means of curing this humour for the future.

"*This is to inform the Public,*

That notwithstanding the great abuse that has been put upon the gentry, there is now in town a man who, instead of creeping into a quart or pint bottle, will change himself into a rattle, which he hopes will please both young and old. If this person meets with encouragement to this advertisement, he will then acquaint the gentry where and when he performs."

The reason assigned, in another humorous advertisement, for the conjurer's not going into the *quart bottle*, was, that after searching all the taverns, not one could be found due measure.—*Cabinet of Curiosities.*

POETRY.

MUTUAL FORBEARANCE

NECESSARY TO THE HAPPINESS OF THE MARRIED STATE.

THE lady thus address'd her spouse—
What a mere dungeon is this house!
By no means large enough; and was it,
Yet this dull room and that dark closet—
Those hangings, with their worn-out graces,
Long beards, long noses, and pale faces—
Are such an antiquated scene,
They overwhelm me with the spleen!
Sir Humphrey, shooting in the dark,
Makes answer quite beside the mark:
No doubt, my dear, I bade him come,
Engag'd myself to be at home,
And shall expect him at the door
Precisely when the clock strikes four.

You are so deaf, my lady cried,
(And rais'd her voice, and frown'd beside)
You are so sadly deaf, my dear,
What shall I do to make you hear?

Dismiss poor Harry! he replies;
Some people are more nice than wise—
For one slight trespass all this stir?
What if he did ride whip and spur,
'Twas but a mile—your favorite horse
Will never look one hair the worse.

Well, I protest, 'tis past all bearing—
Child! I am rather hard of hearing—
Yes, truly—one must scream and bawl—
I tell you, you can't hear at all!
Then, with a voice exceeding low,
No matter if you hear or no.

Alas! and is domestic strife,
That sorest ill of human life,
A plague so little to be fear'd,
As to be wantonly incurr'd,
To gratify a fretful passion,
On every trivial provocation?
The kindest and the happiest pair
Will find occasion to forbear;
And something, every day they live,
To pity, and, perhaps, forgive.
But if infirmities that fall
In common to the lot of all—
A blemish or a sense impair'd—
Are crimes so little to be spar'd,
Then farewell all that must create
The comfort of the wedded state;
Instead of harmony, 'tis jar
And tumult, and intestine war.

The love that cheers life's latest stage,
Proof against sickness and old age,
Preserv'd by virtue from declension,
Becomes not weary of attention;
But lives, when that exterior grace
Which first inspir'd the flame decays.
'Tis gentle, delicate, and kind,
To faults compassionate or blind,
And will with sympathy endure
Those evils it would gladly cure:
But angry, coarse, and harsh expression
Shows love to be a mere profession;
Proves that the heart is none of his,
Or soon expels him if it is.

COWPER.

MISCELLANY.

Society, like a shaded silk, must be viewed in all situations, or its colours will deceive us. Goldsmith observed, that one man who travels through Europe on foot, and who, like Scriblerus, makes his legs his compasses, and another who is whisked through it in a chaise and four, will form very different conclusions at the end of their journey. The philosopher, therefore, will draw his estimate of human nature, by varying as much as possible his own situation, to multiply the points of view under which he observes her. Uncircumscribed by lines of latitude or of longitude, he will examine her "*buttoned up and laced in the forms and ceremonies of civilization, and at her ease and unrestrained in the light and feathered*

costume of the savage." He will also associate with the highest without servility, and the lowest without vulgarity. In short, in the grand theatre of human life, he will visit the pit and the gallery as well as the boxes, but he will not inform the boxes that he comes amongst them from the pit, nor the pit that he visits them from the gallery.—*Lacon.*

There are three kinds of praise; that which we yield, that which we lend, and that which we pay. We yield it to the powerful from fear, we lend it to the weak from interest, and we pay it to the deserving from gratitude. —*Ibid.*

We generally most covet that particalar trust which we are least likely to keep. He that thoroughly knows his friends, might perhaps with safety confide his wife to the care of one, his purse to another, and his secrets to a third; when, to permit them to make their own choice, would be his ruin.—*Ibid.*

Eloquence is the language of nature, and cannot be learned in the schools; the passions are powerful pleaders, and their very silence, like that of Garrick, goes directly to the soul; but rhetoric is the creature of art, which he who feels least will most excel in; it is the quackery of eloquence, and deals in nostrums, not in cures.—*Ibid.*

There is this difference between happiness and wisdom; he that thinks himself the happiest man really is so; but he that thinks himself the wisest is generally the greatest fool.—*Ibid.*

A GIFTED FAMILY.

There at present resides near Versailles a retired subaltern officer, who accompanied Napoleon in most of his wars, who is the father of nine children, and whose nine children, born in nine different countries, speak nearly as many different languages or idioms. His wife was an Italian, whom he married in Italy on the first invasion of that country by the French His first child (Marie) was born at Milan, and speaks Italian, the language of her mother. His second (Guillaume) saw the light in Switzerland. His third, called Ali, came into the world in Egypt, and speaks on occasion a kind of Coptic. His fourth child was born at Boulogne-sur-Mer, when Bonaparte threatened a descent on England from that port. His fifth child was born in Germany, and speaks German. His sixth is a Neapolitan, and consequently is called Genaro (or Januarius.) His seventh is a little Spaniard, called Diego, who has not forgotten the language of his infancy. His eighth is a little Prussian, of the name of Frederick; and his ninth, Mademoiselle Nicholina, saw the light in Elba. The eldest of these children is said to be twenty-eight, the youngest eight. The mother is dead. These nine children still reside under the paternal roof, and render the house something like the tower of Babel.—*Cabinet of Curiosities.*

MIDNIGHT TERRORS.

Some years since, a person carrying from the east coast of Fife a hundred rabbits, to occupy a warren in the western islands, hired a room for them for the night at an inn, at Cupar, and putting them into it, and giving them greens and food, he shut the door; and having refreshed himself, went to bed. A gentleman arrived just afterwards, who had supper, and went to bed, which happened to be in the room contiguous to the rabbits, but he knew nothing of their being there. About the middle of the night, and in the midst of his sleep, the door between his room and the rabbits not being locked, a gale of wind arising, the door suddenly opened, and the whole of the rabbits rushing from their own room, ran into the gentleman's, some running over his face, hands, and other parts of the body, both above and below the bed, and many of them seeking for shelter under the blankets. The gentleman awaking suddenly, was much alarmed, and roared out for help, but none appeared. Their keeper was asleep, as well as every one else in the house. Thinking himself surrounded by a thousand evil spirits, which he found before, behind and round him, he at length found the door, and ran down stairs naked in the dark. The rabbits, as much afraid as the gentleman, following him, were down stairs before him; and it was not many minutes before the whole house was in an uproar. When the candle was lighted, nothing appeared. The rabbits had dispersed, and hid themselves in different parts of the house. Hungary waters, spirits, &c. were brought to recover the gentleman; and it was not till the rabbit man appeared, and found his rabbits gone, that he could comprehend what had happened.—*Cabinet of Curiosities.*

The great rule which the masters of rhetoric press much, can never be enough remembered, that to make a man speak well and pronounce with a right emphasis, he ought thoroughly to understand all that he says, be fully persuaded of it, and bring himself to have those affections which he desires to infuse into others. He that is persuaded of the truth of what he says, and has a concern about it in his mind, will pronounce with a natural vehemence that is far more lively than all the strains that art can lead him to. An orator must be an honest man, and speak always on the side of truth, and study to feel all that he says; and then he will speak it so as to make others feel it likewise.—*Cambray's Dialogues on Eloquence..*

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